

TONGUE-ROOT AND REGISTER IN MON-KHMER¹

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1. *Aspects of Mon-Khmer Register*

Characteristic of many Mon-Khmer languages is the tendency towards complexity of vocalics often in association with what has come to be called *voice register*. This term was first used by Eugénie J. A. Henderson (1952) to describe contrastive syllables Cambodian. These two registers with their associated features may be summarized as follows.

	<i>Initial (written) Consonant</i>	<i>Voice Quality</i>	<i>Vowel Quality</i>	<i>Pitch</i>
First Register	(original) surds	normal head clear tense	more open, onglided	relativ higher
Second Register	(original) sonants	deep breathy sepul- chral chest relaxed	close, centering diphthongs	relativ lower (larynx also lowered

Chart 1

The two series described here, that is the correlation set of the Indic-derived consonantal symbols associated with various vocalic phenomena, had earlier been observed by Haswell (1901), Blagden (1910), and Halliday (1922) for Mon, and by G. Maspero (1915) for Khmer (Cambodian). Blagden noted that in Mon the

nd series (associated with written sonants) is
er 'guttural' and is 'articulated from the rear
he mouth'. He cites J. M. Haswell's earlier
rvations that the second series was also pro-
ced in a 'softer' fashion. Halliday also re-
ized the existence of this basic division in Mon
ology, adding that the voiced initial series is
owed by a vowel with a 'deeper tone'. Maspero
d the previously described series features in
and confirmed that a substantially parallel
ation was true for Khmer.

More recently, Shorto (1966:399, 400) has said
for modern spoken Mon:

the paratonal register distinction is broadly sim-
lar to that described for Cambodian by Henderson.
s exponents are distributed throughout the ar-
culatory complex but exclude pitch features.
est register, symbolized by a grave accent placed
ver the vowel (kèt, hakòà), is characterized by
reathy voice quality in association with a
eneral laxness of the speech organs and a
relatively centralized articulation of vowels.
e more frequent head register is unmarked in
e transcription (ket, hakoa); it is character-
zed by a clear voice quality, relative tenseness,
nd peripheral vowel articulation.

her introductory text on Cambodian, Jacob (1968:4)
es the following description of register pheno-
a:

here is potentially a distinction of voice quality
n the utterance of the vowels and diphthongs of
ne two registers, those of the first register
eing pronounced with a clear, 'head' voice and
certain degree of tension and those of the
econd with a breathy, 'chest' voice and a
omparatively relaxed utterance. This difference
F voice quality will, however, not be heard in
e speech of all speakers.

The term 'pharyngealization' has also been applied to register articulation. Noss (1966:92ff) says of Cambodian:

In Standard and Phnom Penh, all complex vowel nuclei (*i.e.* clusters and long vowels) which begin with a non-low vowel phoneme and remain at that level or fall lower, are, facultatively and non-distinctively, pharyngealized. (In the writing system this distinction is represented almost perfectly insofar as Standard is concerned by the selection of initial consonants.)

This apparently refers to the set called second register (or series) elsewhere. Pharyngealization in an apparently different sense, however, appears what Noss describes as a 'voiced pharyngeal spirant /H/ plus rising pitch' as the normal reflex of /r/ in Phnom Penh speech.

Jenner (1966:19ff) has surveyed some of the features manifesting register not only in Mon, and Khmer proper, but on a wider scale, including other lesser known Mon-Khmer languages of Southeast Asia. In commentary form, taking features attributed to register in these other languages, he draws comparisons or contrasts with articulations in Khmer. Here I summarize only the references to Khmer register phenomena. With reference to *movement of speech organs*, he says (1966:32):

The essential movements occurring in Khmer may be said to be (a) a lowering of the larynx and (b) a widening of the faucal pillars, both contributing to the distention of the pharyngeal cavity. I suspect that a third movement is involved, namely a narrowing of the isthmus faucium by backing the radix of the tongue toward the pharyngeal wall.

As for the *locus of resonance* (33), 'the effect of this complex action ...is to emphasize the role

the pharynx as a resonator'. On the question of *tense-lax distinction* he says (34), 'vowels with oral resonance are typically lax while those with pharyngeal resonance are preponderantly tense. Such tenseness is presumably referable to the act of constricting the pharyngeal chamber'. One notes in passing here that Jacob attributes tenseness and laxness to the opposite registers from Jenner and Shorto's use of these terms for Mon parallels that of Jacob for Cambodian. Turning now to *pitch*, Jenner comments (35):

Whatever its historical rationale, pitch in modern Khmer appears to be an effect of the muscular tension already noted and a by-product of the essential actions involved in pharyngealization. The pitch of vowels uttered with oral resonance is normal, there occurring no articulatory activities to modify it: The pitch of vowels with pharyngeal resonance is low in relation to normal--which is tantamount to saying that during pharyngealization the frequency of vibrations of the vocal cords is retarded. This lowered frequency is accounted for partly, perhaps, by the general tenseness of the laryngeal zone and partly by a diversion of muscular effort to the lowering of the larynx. Normal and low pitch are relative, the interval between the two being three or four semitones.

Finally, on *openness of the oral cavity* this explanation (36) is offered:

In Khmer, syllable nuclei that preserve oral resonance are articulated with the tongue in a lower position than their counterparts that have developed pharyngeal resonance. This is not the same as saying that pharyngealization has entailed raising of the tongue above its normal level, for generally it has been the Low Series nuclei that have suffered the greatest change. This lowering of the oral nuclei, while possibly attributable to the greater laxness which characterizes the Low Register, more probably reflects an urge (which pitch alone was unable to satisfy) to

reinforce the contrast between the oral and the pharyngealized nuclei. In order to see the general nature of this tongue lowering it is useful to view the two series of nuclei ... from the point of view of their development out of a former single set, represented ... with sufficient accuracy by their common Indic transliteration ... the nuclei ... of the High Register show less development away from their supposed prototypes than those of the Low Register. It can be seen that the urge toward a lowered tongue position in the Low Register has been fulfilled in two ways: (1) by the development of a low onglide before some oral vowels and (2) by a more or less perceptible lowering of the tongue with other oral vowels. When this lowering has been marked the change has resulted in functional contrast; when it has been less marked the change is merely phonetic.

In 1962 Phillips demonstrated that certain Mon-Khmer languages in Vietnam (specifically Mnong Bundo, Hre, and Sedang) also possess register systems similar to those described for Cambodian and Mon. Further recent work on highland languages of Vietnam and Laos has revealed that the register phenomenon in varying forms has a fairly widespread distribution within the Katuic and North Bahnaric branches of Mon-Khmer (Miller 1967, Cooper 1965, Gradin 1965). Historical reconstruction has established register as an original feature of North Bahnaric and perhaps Bahnaric as a whole (Smith 1972). Register characteristics of some of these languages are summarized in Chart 2.

While it is evident enough from the above discussion that many Mon-Khmer languages exhibit a basic phonological bifurcation and that the two classes have been labeled as contrastive, the traditional labels have often tended to be on the impressionistic side. This is not altogether surprising for, as a matter of fact, in a number

Register features in Mon-Khmer
languages of Vietnam

<i>Language</i>	<i>First Register</i>	<i>Second Register</i>
ng Bunor	tight, lower vowel, fortis initial stops (vl. and imploded)	loose, higher vowel, lenis initial stops (voiced)
	vocal cords tense,	vocal cords relaxed
	faucalization, clear, bright, 'natural', lower vowel (if different)	deep, muffled, breathy, (abnormal), higher vowel (if different)
ang	tight,	looser, deeper (but not as deep as in Hre),
	pharyngealized (rasp),	not pharyngealized,
	weak glottal stop preceding pharyngealization	'natural'
	clear quality	deep quality, relaxed faucal pillars, lowered larynx, increased diaphragm pressure, lower pitch, higher vowel
ang	shrill, clear	breathy, having undertones, dark sounding

Register features in Mon-Khmer
languages in Vietnam

<i>Language</i>	<i>First Register</i>	<i>Second Register</i>
Rengao	sharply defined, oral (clear) resonance, pharyngeal cavity constricted, larynx normal to high, tongue root retracted, tongue blade lowered	'deep' pharyngeal resonance, pharyngeal cavity expanded, larynx lowered, tongue root advanced, tongue blade raised
Brou	tense, slightly faucalized, lower vowel	relaxed, deep, muffled, higher vowel
Pacoh	pharyngealized, faucalized, tense	normal

Chart 2

the languages in question, the impressions created by these registral features are indeed dramatic. And certainly from a phonemic point of view, any set of features may serve to designate that $A \neq B$. However, the descriptions of register phenomena cited in the texts above have also referred to clearly articulatory features of the question.² Taking this orientation towards the more concrete aspects of register as a cue, I should like to suggest that such endeavors to be more specific about the articulatory basis for the Mon-Khmer register yield further insight into traditional problems in these languages (and perhaps even beyond)--specifically, that a clarification of the nature of articulation in the pharyngeal region provides the unifying basis for the features associated with the Mon-Khmer register.

Tongue-Root Articulation and Register Effects

Vocalic Openness

In an article on Akan, a West African language, M. Stewart (1967) has focused on the tongue-root as the primary articulator and its positioning as the basis for the contrast between the two sets of vowels that characterize the vowel harmony characteristic of that linguistic area.³ The point of great interest in Stewart's approach is that the tongue-root positioning correlates with vowel openness. That is, the tongue-root advance position pairs with close vowels, while the more retracted tongue-root position occurs with open vowels. In a companion article to Stewart's, K. L. Pike (1967) elaborates on the nature of tongue-root position in relation to various ways of describing pharyngeal openness. He goes on to explore the articulatory implication of giving separate status to the degree of tongue-root

advancement at least partially independent of that of the tongue blade. Further, in an independent study of West African languages, Ladefoged (1964) provides cineradiographic evidence clearly revealing that the more open Igbo vowels are effected by a retraction of the entire tongue mass which simultaneously constricts the pharyngeal cavity. On the other hand, these tracings portray the set of close vowels as a result of a more advanced tongue body position which creates an enlarged pharyngeal space.

Interestingly, at the same time that Stewart and Pike were discussing West African vowel height and pharyngeal cavity correlations, Miller (1967) also published 'An acoustical study of Brou vowels', in which a complex Mon-Khmer vocalic system was described. In that paper first-register vowels, described as 'tense, slightly faucalized' are said to be lower in tongue height during most of their duration than corresponding second-register vowels, which have a 'deep, muffled, relaxed' quality.

A comparison of the spectrographic first formant reading for Brou (Brũ) (Miller 1967:156-8) and Twi (Pike 1967:138) further reinforces the notion that some common underlying similarity exists. Since in Brou Miller recognized no register contrast on either low or short vowels, they are not listed in the following chart. For the sake of simplicity the offglides are also omitted.

Twi Vowels

Close Harmony Set

75-200 u (200 cps)
cps)
00 cps) o (200-300
cps)

Open Harmony Set

ɪ (250-300 u (300 cps)
cps)
ɛ (400-500 ɔ (400-500
cps) cps)

Brou Vowels

Second Register

ɪ (400 cps)	ɪ̥ (440)	u (400)
e (600)	ɛ̥ (520)	o (520)

First Register

eɪ (720-400)	ɔ̥ɪ̥ (800-480)	ou (760-440)
ɛɪ (880-640)	ḁɪ̥ (880-640)	ɔu (560-400)

Chart 3

While Brou vocalics in general are of a higher frequency than Twi and exhibit extensive ongliding in the first register, there is a clear parallel between the two sets that at once exhibit features of contrast-openness coupled with differing degrees of tongue volume. The Twi open harmony set and the first register Brou vowels have consistently higher frequencies than their close harmony or second register counterparts.

Consider as further examples the vowel array of *ao*, a North Bahnaric language of Vietnam, in comparison with the harmony systems of the West African languages, *Dagaari* (Kennedy 1966) and (Grimes 1964:114).

Rengao

Second (Lax) Register

i	u
e	o
ə	

First (Tense) Register

e _i	o _u
ɛ	ɔ
	a

Dagaari

Close Harmony Set

i	u
e	o

Open Harmony Set

ɪ	u
ɛ	ɔ
	a

Kru

Bright

Muffled-Pharyngeal Resonant

Bright

i	i	u	u
e	e	o	o
ɛ		a	ɔ

Chart 4

I suggest that the parallelism between Mon-Khmer and West African language vocalic sets is more than a superficial one. It is rather the result of an underlying articulatory complex common to both language groups. That this mechanical linkage between vocalic openness and pharyngeal volume has not been widely recognized among linguists until rather recently is hardly surprising. Linguists, concerned as they are with the code structure of language, often give insufficient attention to its signalling mechanisms. Unfortunately, too often this deprives the linguist of precisely the data he requires to solve the problems he considers central. More to the point in this case, however, is the fact that it is excessively difficult to determine with any sense

...saintly what is going on deep in the vocal tract.
...we must seek help from experimental researchers
...pped with instruments appropriate to the task.

Although study in the area of pharyngeal articulation is growing, its results are only beginning to be realized. H. M. Truby (1967:540) complains, for example, that even:

...the very latest phonetics texts ... still portray the pharyngeal volumes for all vowels the same--demonstrable ignorance of fact, especially in the face of considerable⁴ documentation to the contrary in publication.

A recent Cineradiographic study by Perkell (1969) of the physiology of speech production graphically reflects the co-functioning of tongue blade and tongue body in English. His description (1969:), including his quoted observations of others, is as follows:

...the concavity in the pharyngeal region could be caused by the upward and forward pull of the lower fibers of the genioglossus and by the backward pull of the styloglossus. As MacNeillage and Sholes (1964) write, "the posterior portion of the genioglossus muscle contracts to move the posterior surface toward the point of the jaw (thus widening the pharynx) particularly for vowels which exhibit a high tongue front position (/i/, /e/, /i/[sic], /oi/)". On the other hand, the convexity could be caused by contraction of the posterior fibers of the hyoglossus in conjunction with anterior fibers of the genioglossus to pull and "squeeze" the tongue body posteriorly. Acoustically, this concavity in the lower pharyngeal region for high vowels causes an increase in volume in the posterior portion of the vocal tract, and thus contributes to a lowering of the first formant frequency, which is the principal acoustic characteristic of high vowels.

...ances such as these in our understanding of speech physiology should also enrich our approach to the

analysis of phonological systems in many languages.

The phenomenon of systematic vocalic lowering has been of historical interest in Mon-Khmer studies from its beginnings. The explanation of this development has usually involved reference to the nature of the original initial consonants. Consider, for example, the statement that:

an original voiceless initial *generates* greater openness in timbre of the following vowel than does an original voiced initial (Coedès 1940-48: 67; emphasis mine).

Or again:

The earlier *[gɔ.k] yielded modern [kɔ.k] /kɔk/, the earlier *[kɔ.k] yielded modern [ka.k] /kak/, the voiced initial of *[gɔ.k] not *affecting* the original openness, the voiceless initial of *[kɔ.k] *inducing* a lowering of the tongue to /a:/. Thus the register of the two nuclei, an intrinsic synchronic fact, is a reflex of the former nature of the initials (Jenner, 1966:143; emphasis mine).

In view of these explanatory statements, one is perhaps justified in wondering what the voicing status of a consonant has to do with tongue height, particularly in what seems to be a causal sense. To be sure there is a connection between voicing of initials and vowel height, but is it in some sense causal? Apparently not. Rather descriptions of this type are presumably meant to be interpreted as saying no more than that forms with modern contrastive vowel openness may be traced to historical precursors in which there is no *written* vowel contrast (in the Indic script), but in which an initial consonant contrast of voicing is symbolized. Thus *initial consonants effect vowel changes only in* some metaphorical sense. In view of the earlier discussion of the mechanics of tongue-root articulation

...a, it is suggested that tongue height is best
...ained in those terms. Moreover, as I will dis-
...s below, consonant voicing also seems attributable
...such activity. That is, tongue-root retraction
...a lowers the vowel and creates conditions favor-
...e for voicelessness, while tongue-root advancement
...ults in a higher vowel and a set of voicing con-
...ons.

Voice Quality (Resonance)

The most striking phonetic features in many
Mon-Khmer languages are those involving cavity re-
sonance. Indeed, these features have come to be
phonetically equivalent to the term 'register'.
When referring to West African languages, it is
instructive to compare the 'choked' or 'strangled'
articulations of the Twi open vowels with the 'tight',
'restricted', 'pharyngealized (rasp)', 'faucalized'
quality of Mon-Khmer first register (open) vowels.
Further notice the terms 'hollow' applied by Stewart
to Twi close vowels and 'deeper' and 'fuller' with
which Pike (1967:130) had previously described sim-
ilar pharyngeal phenomena. These descriptions again
are to be compared with Mon-Khmer second register
(close vowels) where the quality has been character-
ized as 'sepulchral', 'deep', and having 'pharyngeal
resonance'. It is further interesting that in Fante,
another West African group related to Twi, there is the
relation of 'unraised' vowel with 'creaky' voice
quality and 'raised' vowel with 'breathy' voice
quality. Incidentally, not unlike Henderson's approach
to the Cambodian register is Berry's analysis of Fante
vowels, in which differences in aperture are consider-
ably secondary to differences in voice quality
(Stewart 1967:169).

The articulatory basis for the auditory contrasts in West African languages has been identified as tongue-root movement. Advanced tongue-root produces an enlarged pharyngeal cavity, creating impressions of resonance focused in that region, while tongue-root retraction constricts the pharyngeal cavity, producing a reduced resonance there. For Khmer Jenner (1966:34) also associates pharyngeal resonance with 'the act of distending the pharyngeal chamber'. This expansion of the pharyngeal cavity is attributed by him (1966:32), however, to the lowering of the larynx and the widening of the faucal pillars. More tentatively, he suspects a third gesture, namely 'backing of the radix of the tongue toward the pharyngeal wall', may be involved in the pharyngeally resonant vowels. Pike (1947:21) has described the production of such 'deep' pharyngeal resonant sounds in terms of all three of the above factors. With reference to the action of the tongue root, however, he prescribes an *advancement*, not a *retraction*, to achieve a distended pharynx. It was precisely this observation by Pike which suggested to Stewart (1967:197) the direction in which to seek the basis of Akan vowel set articulation.

Pike (1967:131) finds no lowering of the larynx in the Asante-Twi speech he observed. Rather the cavity expansion seems to have been created solely by the forward thrust of the tongue body. On the other hand, such lowering is true of Khmer, Jeh, and Rengao (see charts above). The West African material suggests that larynx lowering is not *necessary* for the creation of an enlarged pharynx, tongue advancement being sufficient; however, Mon-Khmer material leads to the observation (as do Pike's original purely phonetic exercises) that there is

natural basis for cooperation of speech organs in this region to expand *both* out and down resulting in maximized pharyngeal volume. They are apparently independent, however. One may suggest that a marking relationship exists, such that with advanced tongue-root comes a natural expectation (but not requirement) of a co-occurrence of laryngeal lowering. This would be an 'unmarked' relationship. On the other hand, tongue-root retraction entails no such expectation; co-occurrence would be a 'marked' relationship.

Briefly summarized then, the auditory facts of the Khmer register contrasts seem quite naturally viewed as based on the advancement or retraction of the tongue-root. Advancement produces the deep pharyngeal qualities of the Second (High) Register and retraction produces the more constricted effects of the First (Low) Register. Laryngeal lowering is viewed as a natural, but independent and optional articulation with advanced tongue-root position. It is also a satisfying conclusion that tongue height and voice quality are both essentially correlative effects of the same articulatory gestures.

The above conclusions concerning the basis of voice quality stand in contrast with historical and phonological explanations. For example, Pinnow (1975:107) states, 'The voiced stops have lost their voicing ... and compensate for this shift, words of the Second Register are now pronounced in a deeper voice' (quoted in Jenner 1966:107). I hope to show below (see 2.3) that resonance features such as 'deep voice' are not just arbitrary replacements for some previous different phonetic cue, but rather share with the consonants a common articulatory basis,

namely tongue-root position.

It was a preoccupation with resonance features to the exclusion of their basis that obscured initial research on certain Mon-Khmer languages of Vietnam. Gradin (1966:41, 42) in his early work on Jeh described it as possessing 'deep vowel quality ... which parallels the laryngealization of Sedang and the breathiness of Halang...' Later studies (*cf.* Smith 1968:60) revealed that from a comparative point of view the parallelism was superficial. It was true that Halang breathiness and Jeh deep vowel corresponded, but not Sedang laryngealization. One does not have to look far for the basis of such faulty parallelisms. Jenner (1966:31), after summarizing register descriptions then available on several Mon-Khmer languages, is clearly correct in concluding that 'the common thread through these .. descriptions is articulatory action of a kind that sets up resonance of an "abnormal" kind which contrasts with "normal" oral resonance'.

One may now ask how helpful the opposition 'normal' vs. 'abnormal' is in understanding register effects. In Khmer the First (Low Vowel) Register is 'normal', while the Second (High Vowel) Register is 'abnormal' (pharyngeally resonant). But it is the 'abnormal' register vowels that most closely reflect what seems to be symbolized in the writing system, while the 'normal' register vowels behave in a most 'erratic' fashion. Certainly terms 'normal' and 'abnormal', whatever virtues they may have simply as tags for contrastive registers, give no insight into the nature of the features (*e.g.* aperture, resonance etc.) with which they correlate.

The parallelism first suggested for Jeh, Halang, and Sedang based on 'normal' vs. 'abnormal' auditory impressions must, on both synchronic and historical-comparative grounds, be replaced by the array in Chart 5.

	Second (High Vowel) Register (tongue-root advanced)	First (Low Vowel) Register (tongue-root retracted)
	abnormal (deep, pharyngeal resonance)	normal (clear)
Halang	abnormal (breathy, pharyngeal resonance)	normal (clear)
Sedang	normal (clear)	abnormal (laryngeal- ized, pharyngeal- ized rasp)

Chart 5

Note now that Jeh and Halang Second Register is pharyngeally resonant and thereby 'abnormal', while Sedang Second Register is not pharyngeally prominent in any way and is by virtue of that fact 'normal'. On the other hand, the Jeh and Halang First Register conveys no exaggerated pharyngeal impressions and may be declared 'normal', whereas the Sedang First Register has some sort of laryngeal and pharyngeal quality and sounds 'abnormal'. From the point of view of the normal : abnormal dichotomy this appears to be a reversal--some kind of phonological flip. Actually, that is not the case. There is a dimension which we may diagram as Chart 6.

Front tongue- Central tongue- Back tongue-
 root position root position root position
 (wide pharynx) (medium pharynx) (narrow pharynx)

	Second Register advanced tongue-root	First Register (retracted tongue-root)
Jeh	abnormal	normal
Halang	abnormal	normal

	Second Register (advanced tongue-root)	First Register (retracted tongue-root)
Sedang	normal	abnormal

Chart 6

Phonologically, each of these three languages has a register opposition based on tongue-root position. Unfortunately, the pharyngeally expanded resonant pronunciation of Jeh and Halang as well as the pharyngeally constricted one of Sedang had both been lumped together as 'abnormal'. They are abnormal, but for opposite reasons phonetically. That is, Jeh and Halang advanced tongue-root position is well advanced from a central tongue body posture, while its retracted position is perhaps only slightly drawn back of that central position towards the pharynx wall. On the other hand, Sedang's advanced position is in the neighborhood of a central tongue-root position, while its retracted position is well drawn back towards the pharynx wall. Thus there is no conflict between phonological and comparative facts among Jeh, Halang and Sedang. Jeh, Halang Second-Register forms with a well advanced tongue-root (abnormal) are cognate with Sedang Second-Register forms with slightly advanced tongue-root (normal) pronunciations.

ilarly, Jeh, Halang slightly retracted (normal) relate with Sedang well retracted (abnormal) ones. short, even though Jeh and Halang tongue-root range more fronted, while that of Sedang is more backed, opposition tongue-root advanced : tongue-root retracted remains.

Consonant Voicing

The correlation in Mon-Khmer of voiced initial consonants with Second (High Vowel) Register and voiceless or glottally affected consonants with First (Low Vowel) Register is well-known (*cf.* Chart 1 for Mnong in Chart 2). Historically the contrast is reflected in the written contrasts in Cambodian and Indic based scripts. The same correlation is a chronic fact in Mnong, where the distinction between voiced and voiceless initial consonants has been interpreted as rendering the other register features (vowel height and voice quality) predictable and hence subphonemic. This modern situation in Mnong seems to nearly portray the set of relationships that earlier existed in Mon and Khmer prior to the voicing of initial consonants.

The written initial consonants of Khmer and Mon, behaving as they do the same set of morpheme distinctions as are synchronically manifested by other register features (voice quality, pitch, vowel aperture), are generally taken as a phonological given, from which to derive modern register features. It has not been considered meaningful to inquire why voiced consonants correlate with Second (High Vowel) Register and voiceless consonants with First (Low Vowel) Register. The study of the mechanics of tongue-root articulation, however, leads to the suggestion that the original voicing status of

initials is more than an arbitrary starting point for subsequent phonological contrasts. Let us assume that, rather than several register features issuing from the one voiced : voiceless opposition in some sequential sense, all the features (voicing, pitch, vowel aperture, and voice quality) coexisted (as in modern Mngong), constituting a multi-feature prosodic opposition dichotomizing all syllables (or phonological words). It is suggested that all of these phonetic features are effects of an underlying opposition between tongue-root advancement vs. tongue root retraction. Voiced initials are an effect of advancement and voiceless initials of retraction of the tongue body.

The positioning of the tongue body has already been described as having a natural reciprocal effect on the position of the tongue blade (vowel height). It is hypothesized by Perkell (1969:57) that 'the intrinsic musculature has little function in vowel differentiation'. Rather vowels are produced by the action of the extrinsic musculature in positioning a semi-rigid tongue body in the speech tract. On the other hand Perkell (1969:65) says:

Consonant production can be thought of as being accomplished by the action of both the extrinsic and intrinsic systems. As in the case of vowel production, the tongue body (or lips) must be positioned to enable a particular part of the tongue or lips to accomplish the specified articulation. For this reason, coarticulation effects of vowels are, for the most part, manifested by influencing the *position* of consonant-articulating organs rather than by altering the *manner* of articulation. Thus the positioning element of consonant production is performed by the slow extrinsic system and is strongly influenced by coarticulation effects. This positioning aspect presumably also operates to produce secondary features of consonant articulation such as palata-

ization, labialization, and pharyngealization.

s, as suggested by Öhman (Perkell 1969:65), 'the production of a consonant can be thought of as being a gesture superimposed on the continuously varying vowel-producing system'. Looked at slightly differently, vowels and consonants are dependent on a common mechanism--tongue body positioning muscle--as fundamental for their production. This is precisely the parameter we have been investigating in this paper, *i.e.* tongue-root advancement vs. tongue-root retraction.

It is no novel observation that vowels and consonants have similarities and mutually affect one another. As noted above, point of articulation and assimilation is well-known between consonants and vowels. But the Mon-Khmer correlation involves voicing as a coarticulation feature of vowel aperture, vowel quality, and pitch. Can this be explained as a tongue-root positioning effect? I think it can.

It has been pointed out (*e.g.* Perkell 1969:33-4; Liberman and Halle 1968:325) that the degree of pharyngeal widening during consonant production varies depending on the particular consonant. In particular, these references involve voiced 'lax' and voiceless 'tense' consonants, where the former systematically exhibit a wider pharynx cavity than the latter. Clearly, this accords with Mon-Khmer voicing and pharyngeal correlations in each register. So, to inquire further, what is there about an advanced tongue body that it is compatible with voicing or a retracted tongue body that it is compatible with non-voicing?

The answer to our question perhaps involves the matter of air stream movement in speech production. Chomsky and Halle (1968:326-7) explain:

In order for the vocal cords to vibrate, it is necessary that air flow through them. If the air flow is of sufficient magnitude, voicing will set in, provided that the vocal cords not be held as widely apart as they are in breathing or in whispering.

This is based on the fact that (Chomsky and Halle, 1968:300) 'the two major factors controlling vocal cord vibration are the difference in air pressure below and above the glottis and the configuration of the vocal cords themselves'. If there are no significant constrictions in the air passage, the lungs may freely drive air through the glottis, creating a vocal cord vibration. On the other hand, if there is a constriction in the vocal passage which resists the flow of air, the vocal cords return to a non-vibrating closed state since no air movement forces them apart for voicing. That is, a voiceless state exists. Since the air initiating mechanism continues to exert force, subglottal pressure does, however, continue to build until a threshold is reached where the vocal cords are forced apart in a rapid expulsion of air. This correlation has been noted by Lisker (cited in Chomsky and Halle 1968:326, fn. 29), who says: 'The rate of pressure build-up is significantly slower for voiced stops than for voiceless.'

In view of these observations it seems possible to suggest that the advancement or retraction of the tongue-root can constitute a major air stream regulator. In a forward position the tongue body ideally raises vowel height, produces enlarged resonant

ryn timer cavity, and permits the uninhibited flow of air through the glottis for voicing of consonants. Conversely, in a retracted posture the tongue body lowers tongue height, reduces pharyngeal resonance, restricts the flow of air, thereby producing a voiceless state for consonants. Specifically, the glottis with its mechanical linkage to the tongue and hyoid bone may play a significant role in controlling air movement (*cf.* Heffner 1960:19).

It has been noted that the registers in Monkeys are characterized as involving some kind of tense vs. lax opposition (*cf.* charts 1 and 2). The relation of voiced consonants with the lax register and the voiceless and imploded consonants with the tense register accords with a general phonetic observation that:

Tense phonemes are articulated with greater distinctness and pressure than the corresponding lax phonemes. The muscular strain affects the tongue, the walls of the vocal tract and the glottis. The higher tension is associated with a greater deformation of the entire vocal tract from its neutral position (Jacobson, Fant, and Halle 1961: 8).

Liberman and Halle (1968:325) describe the possibility of voicing to take place as a function of the tension of the vocal tract. Again this involves the control of air stream pressure and movement through the glottis. With a supraglottal constriction, the pressure above and below the glottis rapidly equalizes and the vocal cords no longer vibrate with the passage of air through them if the vocal tract is rigidly constrained by strong muscular tension. On the other hand, a generally lax vocal tract allows expansion as pressure builds and thereby permits a

continuing vocal cord vibration, *i.e.* voicing. Certainly compatible with this interpretation of tenseness is the observation that in Mon-Khmer the 'tense' First Register, for which tongue-root retraction neatly explains vowel height and voice quality, manifests voiceless consonants, while the 'lax' second register, based on tongue-root advancement, manifests voiced ones. From this point of view one may agree with Lisker and Abramson (1971:775) that pharyngeal enlargement need not merely be a 'passive response' to sub-glottal pressure, but is rather an 'active adjustment', *i.e.* tongue-root positioning.

In spite of the apparent applicability of tenseness vs. laxness to consonant voicing in Mon-Khmer, there are some infelicities, too. The problem is that in the 'lax' Second Register consonants are voiced, but vowels are high (close) and in the 'tense' First Register consonants are voiceless (or imploded) but vowels are low (open). When these lax register higher vowels are long, their production entails a certain visible flexing and bulging under the chin above the larynx. Stewart (1967:196ff) calls this 'chin lowering' for the tongue-root advanced vowels of Twi and feels that it fits Hockett's (1958:78-9) description of tenseness in European vowels. Hockett points to the 'bunching and tension in the muscles' under the chin above and in front of the glottis during the articulation of English *beat* versus the absence of such muscular action in *bit*. However, if West African tongue-root advanced ('raised') vowels are tense by this measure, one is left with Stewart's (1967:196) hesitation about tenseness in general:

on impressionistic grounds I have always felt uneasy about applying the lax/tense terminology to Twi or Fante as some of the unraised ('lax') vowels, particularly the high ones I and U, have often struck me as choked or even strangled.

The effect of this is that Stewart now has two types of tenseness--one that manifests itself in the 'strangled', 'constricted' pronunciation of the open unraised') vowels, and one that appears as the 'vowel bunching under the chin for the close ('raised') vowels. One is then faced with a choice of which particular activity to focus on in applying the tense/lax terminology. In my opinion, Stewart makes the right choice in taking yet a third alternative by abandoning tense/lax as a distinctive feature and treating the basis of his phonological opposition directly in the articulatory movements themselves, i.e. tongue-root position. In that case, tenseness best applies redundantly and at worst is relegated to whatever other uses impressionistic terms can be put to. In conclusion, then, I suggest that for Monaghan also the explanation of register phenomena such as voicing of consonants or positioning of vowels is not founded on explicit references to specific speech articulations (tongue-blade, tongue-root) and their movements (up : down, backward : forward) and that other harder to define notions like tenseness, as they often seem, be given secondary status.

The view that voicing is fundamentally associated with the management of pressures in the vocal tract above and below the larynx has long been held by phoneticians (cf. Stetson 1951:37, 38, 50). It is essentially this assumption which is accepted by Jakobson and Halle (1968). However, more recently a number of investigators have argued that laryngeal

activity can be initiated independently by the intrinsic musculature of the larynx itself. This same line of reasoning, by the way, applies not only to voicing, but also to pitch. Lisker and Abramson (1971), representing something like an 'autonomous larynx viewpoint', for example, say:

We assert the possibility, in the absence of evidence to the contrary, that the speaker exerts some control over the timing of voicing onset by determining the close down of the glottis. In absolute initial position ... it seems not unreasonable to suppose straight-forward control of the timing of contraction of certain of the laryngeal muscles.

The position taken by Lisker and Abramson appears to be a healthy reaction to a general view, in which laryngeal control is said to be basically outside the larynx itself. Now, however, the danger would seem to be a theoretical stance in which the larynx is held to function completely independently of other articulators. The authors cited do not as a matter of fact espouse the most extreme position. Rather they are really doing no more than seriously questioning the 'dependent larynx' idea in view of the present incomplete state of knowledge on the topic.

While it is possible to assume that the larynx independently receives instructions from the brain to initiate vocal cord vibrations while the tongue base is advanced, and to cease such activity while the tongue is retracted in the Mon-Khmer register systems, it seems wiser, from a methodological point of view, to first ask whether there is a natural basis for a non-fortuitous cooperation between tongue and larynx. That is, considering the extent to which the muscular and neural systems of the

gue and larynx are harnessed together, one would expect *interaction* rather than *independence* to characterize many of their relationships. Deeper understanding of these connections will hopefully shed light on the question of voicing in the context of tongue-root articulations.

In addition to plain voiceless consonants, glottalized sounds are also usually Mon-First Register correlates. Phonetically, implosives belong to a class of ingressive suction movements. Typical of the production of clicks and implosives is the role of tongue retraction in providing a rarified outer cavity and a highly pressurized inner cavity. The backward movement of the tongue cooperating with downward movement of the vibrating glottis is specifically described for Xosha, an African language (Chomsky and Halle 1968:323). The rapid and extensive laryngeal lowering with ingressive air in the First-Register for implosives is in contrast with the lesser laryngeal lowering with egressive air that accompanies pharyngeal expansion in the Second-Register. The common denominator between other voiceless sounds and the glottalized ones seems to be that the period of onset of articulation in which the larynx is lowered is a voiceless one. This is terminated by a rapid glottal release as the subglottal pressure is released and voicing of the consonant begins.

As for the role of tongue posture during implosive articulation, one may suggest that the vacuum created in the pharynx by the descending larynx creates forces favorable to at least some degree of tongue retraction. Greenberg (1970) has noted that in general the bilabial point of articulation is the

most favored. Of course, this leaves the tongue free to follow whatever other forces may be brought to bear on it. Greenberg further notes that a retroflexed consonant is the next most common implosive. This clearly reflects tongue retraction and in some cases such retroflexion is considered more distinctive than the implosion. Velar implosives, on the other hand, are apparently rare. Certainly this is true in Southeast Asian languages. But this would seem to be a major retracted articulation and thereby be expected to appear frequently with implosion if, indeed, retraction and implosion are naturally linked. If the tongue body retraction involved in implosives is acting in concert with the forces created by laryngeal lowering, the tongue movement may be expected to be not only back but also *down*. Velar articulation, however, requires a high arching of the tongue dorsum in contrast to the lower profile of dentals and labials. In at least one set of English cineradiographic tracings in Perkell (1969:58), the pharyngeal constriction was no greater for a voiceless velar than for a voiceless dental and even less than for a voiceless bilabial stop. Perhaps again, as in the case of vocalic effects of tongue-root movement, the most natural tongue body path describes a 'slanting line' from high front in advanced position to low back in retracted position. This route would render the by-pass of velar implosives a not unexpected tendency.

2.4 *Pitch*

Pitch as a register feature is reported for Khmer as 'relatively high' in First Register and 'usually lower' in Second Register (Henderson 1952:51). Lower pitch in the Second Register as well as a rising pitch associated with final /-h/ is

orted for Jeh (Gradin 1966). Level vs. falling
es are reported to correlate with original surds
sonants, respectively, in Riag (Luce 1965).
tnamee, similarly, reflects a high set of tones
ociated with voiceless initials and a low set
ociated with voiced ones (Maspero 1912:102). For
er and Jeh a classic register set exists, includ-
pitch. For Riag, Vietnamese, and other Mon-
er languages, the familiar vowel effects of
ister are not reported, though the pitch-consonant
tial correlation exists. Of course, the latter
widespread in Asia outside Austroasiatic. In the
e of Vietnamese, however, there are a number of
mples of vowel correspondence with classic register
guages in which the lowered First Register vowels
e low reflexes in Vietnamese. This suggests that
tnamee may once have had the fuller set of re-
ter features, but lost all but tone. The same
e of reasoning can be used to show that non-register
guages of Vietnam once possessed register, which
since disintegrated into a simple vowel contrast
tem (in these cases minus pitch). Consider
rt 7.

The sample comparisons in Chart 7 involve spe-
ically the high front and back tongue-root
tracted register vowels, since they give the most
matic evidence of 'downward migrations' in vocalic
ce. There is enough lowering in Vietnamese to
gest tentatively that such correspondences are
ountable as former allophones of /i/ and /u/ in
ginal tongue-root retracted register syllables.
s has all been to say that Vietnamese, a 'tonal
guage', gives some evidence of deriving its
ginal pitch sets from the same articulatory

<i>Register</i>	<i>Non-Register</i>	<i>Tonal</i>	<i>Glosses for Example</i>
<i>piq</i> (OMon)	<i>pe</i> (Bahnar, Chrau)	<i>ba</i> (VN)	'three'
<i>pi</i> (MMon)			
/pi/ [p ^{ei} i] (Rengao)			
<i>/bəlɪ/</i> [bəl ^{ei} i]	<i>pələ</i> (Bahnar)	<i>lə</i> (VN)	'bamboo'
<i>mi</i> (Mon), <i>me</i> (OKhmer)	<i>meq</i> (Bahnar)	<i>mẹ</i> (VN)	'mother'
/miq/ [m ^{ei} iq] (Rengao)			
<i>cf.</i> kmie (Khasi)			
<i>turow</i> (OMon)	*prăw (Proto- South Bahnaric)	<i>sáu</i> (VN)	'six'
<i>tarau</i>			
/tədru/ [tədrou] (Rengao)			
<i>appo'</i> (OMon)	(h)apo (Bahnar)	(châm-) bao mộng (VN)	'dream'
<i>lapa</i> (MMon)			
/həpu/ [həp ^{ou} u] (Rengao)			
<i>pan</i> (Mon); <i>pon</i> (OKhmer)	*puən (Proto- South Bahnaric)	<i>bốn</i> (VN)	'four'
/pun/ [p ^{ou} un] (Rengao)			
<i>cf.</i> Munda upun; Sak. humpun			

ditions that exist in the 'register languages'.

As mentioned earlier in connection with voicing, whole question of laryngeal control and pitch reduction is a vexed one. Lieberman (1967) has placed considerable emphasis on the role of subglottal pressure as affecting fundamental frequency or pitch. Ladefoged and Ohala (1970) and Fromkin and Ohala (1968), on the other hand, while not denying the effects of subglottal pressure, rather attribute to it a more ancillary role. For example, Ladefoged and Ohala (1970:25) say: 'at least 90% of the linguistically significant pitch patterns in English sentences are effected by means of controlled changes in laryngeal muscles.' Again, Fromkin and Ohala (1968:103) say:

Subglottal pressure could account for only about 10 per cent of the observed F_0 change encountered on the stressed or accented words. This leads us to conclude that the laryngeal musculature plays a more important role on F_0 regulation in speech than does pressure.

Mon-Khmer languages which clearly exhibit the register features more easily traceable to tongue-root movement (vowel height and voice quality especially), pitch is never a major feature. It is more often absent than present in register descriptions in various languages. This may be interpreted as some kind of support for the view that laryngeal activities are at least partially independent of tongue movement. Yet when pitch does figure, it is higher for First Register, lower for Second Register articulation. This leads to the assumption that there must be some natural basis for their co-existence. The question is not so much whether higher pitch can be initiated by the laryngeal musculature

alone in a given instance as it is whether some other set of conditions can *also* be a pitch raising or lowering factor. It is worth noting that Ladefoged and Ohala (1970:12-13) recognize not only subglottal pressure, vocal cord stiffness and mass, but also supraglottal impedance, as factors affecting the frequency of vocal cord vibration. They say, however, that

When a subject alters his articulation, he alters not only the supraglottal impedance, but also, in some cases, the tension of the vocal cords. In saying vowels such as /i/ and /u/, and consonants, there are noticeable changes in the configuration of the laryngeal tissues which we must assume have a definite effect on the tension of the vocal cords.

This implies that an extreme tongue gesture can produce more glottal tension than a less extreme one and thus contributes toward greater vocal cord vibration. If in a given language /i/ and /u/ are produced with greater effort of the (extrinsic ?) musculature of the tongue than /a/ is, the former have a slightly higher pitch than the latter. This seems to be the case in a number of languages, including those of West Africa.⁵ The interesting question there, however, is not whether /i/ and /u/ are higher in pitch than /a/, but whether the tongue-root retracted allophone of /i/ is higher or lower in pitch than the tongue-root advanced allophone of the same phoneme. In Rengao, a Mon-Khmer language of Vietnam, the sharp low onset of First Register vowels by the retraction of the tongue is a distinct muscular action that is noticeably more vigorous than any Second Register gesture. On this basis First Register has been called 'tense' and Second Register 'lax'. In Rengao the First Register varia

Tongue-Root and Marking Relations

Blade back	Blade low	Apex back	Larynx high	Glottis 'tense'	Height'd subglot. press.	Blade for- ward	Blade high	Apex for- ward	Larynx low	Glottis 'lax'	Lower subglot. press.
U	U	U	U	U	U	M	M	M	M	M	M
M	M	M	M	M	M	U	U	U	U	U	U

Root
back

Root
for-
ward

Chart 8

of /i/, [⁰i], exhibits greater muscular effort or tension than does the Second Register variant of /i/ [i]. Pitch differences are not noticeable to the unaided ear in Rengao, but if, as Ohala and Ladefoged seem to suggest, higher pitch may be triggered by articulator tension, then it is the tongue-root retracted First Register that should be affected. As we have noted, this is indeed the register so affected in other Mon-Khmer languages. The question of 'tenseness' is, however, as usual a slippery one to deal with systematically.

Regarding the relationship of tongue-root movement and laryngeal function (both voicing and pitch), it seems possible to say that a fundamental liaison exists between them such that it is natural though not inevitable, for certain cooperative activities to take place in speech production. At present, the exact mechanics of that relationship are a matter of debate. Even so, certain possibilities that have been suggested in the literature lead one to the conviction that the tongue-larynx factors in Mon-Khmer register are not merely accidental correlates, but rather natural collaborators. I therefore suggest that certain features associated with register phenomena (or comparable systems in other languages) may be said to possess certain natural relations among themselves but are most notably tied to tongue-root articulation. These marking relations are to be interpreted such that an unmarked (U) relationship is expected, presumably because it has a natural physiological basis, while a marked (M) relationship is less expected, for the same reason. Chart 8 expresses the set of associations I have in mind.

Vowel Harmony

In his description of Cambodian grammar, Huffman (1975:58-62) says:

many derivatives of disyllabic shape, the series of the affix vowel is determined by the series of the base vowel. In a smaller number of forms, the series of the base vowel is determined by the series of the affix vowel. This kind of conditioning is defined here as *vowel harmony*.

Simplifying the base vowel conditioned by an affix. For example, /muc/ 'to submerge' and /prɔmɔc/ 'to put down'. An instance of the prefix vowel being conditioned by that of the base is illustrated in the series /cək/ 'to bite' and /cɔcək/ 'to peck at' in First Register, as compared with /crul/ 'to exceed' and /cocrul/ 'excessively' in Second Register. That /co-/ alternates with /cɔ-/ , depending on the register of the base vowel. Consonants are involved in part of the 'conditioning' environment for affix alternation. For example, /-ɔm-/ alternates with /-um-/ as a caustive infix: /-um-/ occurs with First Register vowels in which there is a Second Register vowel and the second consonant of the base is a sonorant; /-ɔm-/ occurs elsewhere.

In the Jadrap dialect of Rengao a general vowel harmony also exists. In this case the presyllable is determined by the main syllable vowel and register. The presyllable in general has the shape Cə-, where C is a non-contrastive vowel. While CəCVC is the normal pronunciation for all words of both registers, there is a variant system in which CəCVC is appropriate for all Second Register words and those with First Register high vowels, but CaCVC or CɛCɛC, CɔC, and CɔCɔC are found in words with First Register low vowels.

While vowel harmony has not been generally reported for Mon-Khmer languages, I wish to suggest that like the previously discussed features of register, this phenomenon too is a natural concomitant of a system which exploits tongue-root articulation. In the West African languages, it will be remembered, it is precisely a vowel harmony function that traditionally defines the set of tongue-root advanced vs. tongue-root retracted vowels. The question is, what connection does vowel harmony have with the movement of the tongue body?

To answer this question, let us return to the model of speech production referred to earlier in which consonant articulation is thought of as an activity superimposed upon the vowel producing system. Perkell (1969:61) says:

... the tongue is more active in consonant articulation whereas the body of the tongue is active in articulating both consonants and vowels.

He goes on to add:

The general differences in velocity, complexity, precision of movement, and in anatomy suggest that different types of muscles are generally responsible for consonant and vowel production. It is probable that articulation of vowels is accomplished principally by the larger, slower extrinsic tongue musculature which controls tongue position. On the other hand, consonant articulation requires the addition of the precise, more complex and faster function of the smaller intrinsic tongue musculature.

Let us add to this the observation attributed to Öhman (Perkell 1969:64) that the '(time) unit of natural speech encoding is more the size of a syllable than a phoneme'. Vowel harmony implies that the syllable is perhaps only a lower limit for speech timing.

In view of these observations on physiology and
 ng, we may diagram sample relationships of the
 ue body and the tongue blade through successive
 ges of state in speech production as Chart 9.

ue blade/ changes state rinsic ulature)	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
	C	C	C	V	C	C	C	V	C	C	V	C
ue body ges of e rinsic ulature)	1 ADVANCE						2 RETRACT					

Chart 9

ose 1, 2, 3, etc., represent temporal sequence
 change of state of the articulator named to the
 . Notice that the tongue body exhibits a lesser
 uency of change of state than does the tongue
 e or tip. While this over-simplifies the mech-
 ms involved, it does portray the idealized
 ation in which the basic body set moves relative-
 ittle (perhaps often phonemically non-contrast-
 y) while the upper part of the tongue moves
 ough relatively more phonemically contrastive
 ts of articulation. In State 1 the tongue root
 orward as in Mon-Khmer Second Register. As this
 ure is maintained, a sequence of consonants and
 l adjustments are made by the tip and blade.
 his were Mon-Khmer we would expect to have the
 ial consonant voiceless or glottalized and the
 l relatively close. As the speaker produces the
 nd word, the tongue body retracts to State 2,
 e again it maintains its basic set through a
 es of more rapid gestures by the upper tongue.

This time, however, two of these non-contiguous blade gestures produce vowels. But since the tongue root state has been roughly the same throughout, these vowels share something that was not possible in State 1. Namely the blade reach for both of them has been restricted (lowered) in a way not true of the same blade gesture in State 1 with the tongue body forward. This means that all blade actions dominated by one root position describe a certain articulatory range, while those of another root position describe a different one. This is a natural basis for vowel harmony.

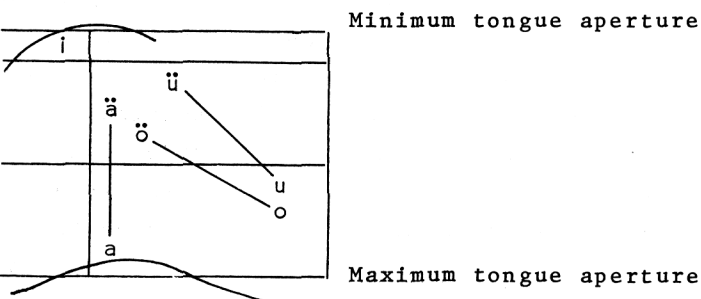
That the basis for vowel harmony is tongue-root articulation in West African and Mon-Khmer language suggests that it may be a relevant factor in other languages as well. For example, descriptions of Mongolian vowel harmony in the literature yield certain parallels. In Mongolian the harmonizing feature is tongue advancement with reference to both consonants and vowels. Lightner (1965:244-50) has advocated the use of a word-root marker GRAVE to yield a prosodic specification in the base forms. Stuart and Haltod (1957:87) earlier had said:

were there no exceptions we might describe Mongolian with only four vowels, *i.e.* /a, o, u, i/, plus two opposed characteristics (front:back) appertaining *not to the phoneme segment but to the word*. The rules of vowel harmony hold sufficiently well, as it is, for words violating these rules to be definitely conspicuous. [Emphasis mine.]

They go on to note that native grammarians call the back group 'masculine' and the front 'feminine'. one follows their suggestion and posits these basic vowels, how are the parameters to be labeled? Presumably something like the following:

	Front	Back
High	i	u
Low	a	o

then what does the suggestion about multiplying whole set by another front-back *word factor* mean? Apparently, for example, the high front unit must have a further sense in which it is 'front' or 'back', the high back u must again be further specified as to 'front' or 'back'. An examination of the supposed tongue positions (Stuart and Haltod 1957:83) will perhaps be helpful [lines connecting vowel counterparts are mine]:



an interesting fact is that what are the *back set* of vowels are equally and perhaps more significantly part of a *lower set* of vowels. Note that historically there was apparently an earlier pair of *i* vowels, but now they are not now distinguished. The allophonic neutralization of *i* before *ng* (Stuart and Haltod 1957:81) is, however, probably significant, being a tongue retraction environment. In view of the general vowel neutralization connected with tongue-root retraction noted elsewhere, a similar interpretation seems inviting for Mongolian. Thus an underlying *tongue blade* front-back contrast would be distinguished from a tongue root front-back distinction and could be

shown schematically as:

	tongue-root front		tongue-root back	
tongue blade	front	back	front	back
blade high	i	ü	i	u
blade low	ä	ö	a	o

The flatness (roundedness) feature, then, rather than being a major feature as in Lightner (1965) would be predicted by the very natural general rule that blade-front vowels are unrounded (-flat) and blade-back vowels are rounded (+flat).

Another example of vowel harmony is found in Nez Perce. Zwicky (1970:116) arrays the vowels as:

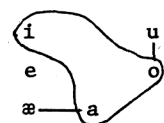
i		u
		o
æ	—————	a

The vowels I have connected by lines are harmonic counterparts, the lower or backed ones forming a class called *dominant* and the upper or fronted ones a class called *recessive*.

If a word contains a dominant morpheme (one with dominant vowels), all vowels in the word are dominant. Some morphemes with the vowel *i* are dominant, some recessive. (Zwicky 1970:116.)

Note, not unlike Mongolian above, *i* does not take a phonetically distinct counterpart.⁶ This fact becomes important in the analysis of Zwicky and others in attempting to propose a natural underlying system in which *i* has both *dominant* and *recessive*

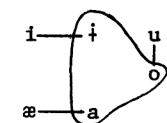
ants that are plausible. The features which are
 oyed to define the system are *high*, *low*, *back*,
round. Some of the main underlying systems
 ered are these:



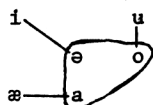
Rigsby-Silverstein
 system



Rigsby-Silverstein
 revised system



Rigsby-Silverstein
 variant



Jacobsen system

Chomsky and Halle (1968:372) declare that /i, a,
 and /i, æ, u/ are 'not natural classes in any
 reasonable phonetic framework' and their categoriza-
 tion should not be based on phonetic features. They
 propose an ad hoc diacritic feature /H/ to distinguish
 two sets. If, however, one posits an underlying
 tongue-root position contrast as the basis for vowel
 harmony in Nez Perce, as it appears to be in the
 other languages described above, one must conclude
 that the sets rejected by Chomsky and Halle are very
 natural classes and that it is the phonetic framework
 that is not 'reasonable.' If, as in Mongolian, there
 is a lost historical alternation even for /i/, the
 classes become even more convincing. It appears
 that the palatalizing effect of some /i/'s on conso-
 nants (Zwicky 1970:124-5) does reflect such an
 earlier state of affairs.⁷ The logic of tongue-root
 articulation would, then, seem to indicate that any

of the three alternatives for underlying systems above except the first Rigsby-Silverstein system would be plausible. Zwicky prefers Jacobsen's system, but if we abandon the attempt to describe the vowel pairs only in terms of blade position (high, low, back) and turn to tongue-root factors, it does not matter much whether the retracted variant of /i/ was /e/, /ə/ or /ɨ/--all are *tongue retracted* in opposition to the other tongue root advanced variant. The analysis of vowel harmony systems in a number of other languages may also become less complicated if the tongue-root dimension is incorporated.

¹The observations of this paper were first written in a working paper done at a Summer Institute of Linguistics workshop at Nhatrang, Vietnam, in 1969. The current version expands and updates that study somewhat. I have especially profited from discussion with Richard Pittman, Kenneth Smith, and David Thomas.

²Jenner (1966:37, fn. 52) has noted that the task of defining register may be approached from either the point of view of the mechanics of production or that of their perceptible effects. He says that for reasons of economy he has chosen the latter; the present study focuses on the former.

³Chomsky and Halle (1968:314-15) suggest the features 'covered-noncovered' to describe the West African vowel harmony characteristics. They consider it basically a vowel related phenomenon and mainly a West African phenomenon. I suggest that this opposition is much more far-reaching than either of those observations suggest. The terms 'covered-noncovered' also seem more nebulous than necessary. Tongue-root advancement: Tongue-root retraction is more enlightening.

⁴This indictment is not universally valid, of course, for such works as Heffner (1960) and Jakobson, Fant and Halle (1961), to mention just two, explicitly correlate pharyngeal and oral features. It does, nevertheless, reflect the fact

the topic has not received the attention it
deserves in view of its relevance for phonology.

⁵In contrast to this, note that in Tlingit it
is reported (personal communication from Constance
Foley) that the vowels /i, e, a, u/ have high or low
tone, but that /ɪ, ɛ, ʌ, ʊ/ have only high tone. In
this case, except for the ʌ vowel, it is the lower
vowels that as a class favor higher pitch.

⁶In Finnish it is reported (Jakobson, Fant, and
Keatinge 1961:41) that again the front vowels /e, i/ do
not take part in the vowel harmony process.

⁷Note that historical palatalization phenomena
in West African languages also coincide naturally
with tongue-root advanced vowels.

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